

Partial dynamical symmetry as a selection criterion for many-body interactions

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We propose the use of partial dynamical symmetry (PDS) as a selection criterion for higher-order terms in situations when a prescribed symmetry is obeyed by some states and is strongly broken in others. The procedure is demonstrated in a systematic classification of many-body interactions with SU(3) PDS that can improve the description of deformed nuclei. As an example, the triaxial features of the nucleus ¹⁵⁶Gd are analyzed.

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Many-body forces play an important role in quantum many-body systems [1]. They appear either at a fundamental level or as effective interactions which arise due to restriction of degrees of freedom and truncation of model spaces. A known example is the structure of light nuclei, where two-nucleon interactions are insufficient to achieve an accurate description and higher-order interactions between the nucleons must be included [2]. Given the difficulty in constraining the nature of such higher-order terms from experiments, one is faced with the problem of their determination. One way, currently the subject of active research [3], is to determine them from effective field theory applied to quantum chromodynamics. Chiral perturbation theory establishes a hierarchy of the interactions included according to their order.

The complexity of the interactions between nucleons in a nucleus is, in fact, a problem generic to any many-body system consisting of composite (as opposed to elementary) objects. Another notable example is the interacting boson model (IBM) of Arima and Iachello [4]. In this model, low-energy collective states of the nucleus are described in terms of N interacting monopole (s) and quadrupole (d) bosons representing *pairs* of valence nucleons. The interactions between the bosons are usually restricted to two-body [5] but this assumption has no fundamental justification. One is thus faced with a similar problem as for nucleons in a nucleus since the number of possible interactions grows rapidly with their order, even when invariances such as angular momentum conservation are imposed.

The interactions between bosons in the IBM can, in principle at least, be determined ‘microscopically’, that is, derived from the more fundamental interactions between the nucleons, just as those can, in principle, be derived from QCD. Much work, initiated by Otsuka *et al.* [6], has been devoted in the past to determine the two-boson interaction (for a review, see Ref. [7]) by mapping methods which conceivably can be extended to higher order. A recent microscopic study, based on a correspondence of mean-field potentials, indicates that also in the IBM higher-order interactions are required [8]. In this Letter, we suggest a method to select possible higher-order interactions which is based on the idea of partial

dynamical symmetry (PDS).

The concept of PDS [9] is a generalization of that of a dynamical symmetry (DS) [10] where the conditions of the latter (solubility of the complete spectrum, existence of exact quantum numbers for all eigenstates, and predetermined structure of the eigenfunctions) are relaxed and apply to only *part* of the eigenstates and/or of the quantum numbers. PDSs have been identified in various dynamical systems involving bosons and fermions (for a review, see Ref. [9]). They play a role in diverse phenomena including nuclear and molecular spectroscopy [11–13], quantum phase transitions [14] and mixed regular and chaotic dynamics [15]. Here we use the mathematical algorithm to construct, order by order, all possible interactions with a given PDS [16, 17], apply it to the SU(3) limit of the IBM, and illustrate with a concrete example how the PDS and data constrain the form and strength of higher-order interactions.

The dynamical algebra of the IBM is U(6) with generators in terms of which operators of all physical observables can be written. The classification of states in the SU(3) limit is [18]

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{U}(6) & \supset & \text{SU}(3) & \supset & \text{SO}(3) & \supset & \text{SO}(2) \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ [N] & & (\lambda, \mu) & K & L & & M \end{array}, \quad (1)$$

where underneath each algebra the associated labels are given (K is a multiplicity label needed in the SU(3) \supset SO(3) reduction). These define the Elliott basis [19], $[[N](\lambda, \mu)KLM]$, from which the Vergados basis [20], $[[N](\lambda, \mu)\tilde{\chi}LM]$, is obtained by a standard orthogonalization procedure. The classification (1) assumes a symmetric U(6) irreducible representation (irrep) $[N]$ which is appropriate for the IBM. Apart from terms involving the conserved total boson number operator \hat{N} , a Hamiltonian with SU(3) DS has the form

$$\hat{H}_{\text{DS}} = \alpha_1 \hat{C}_2[\text{SU}(3)] + \alpha_2 \hat{C}_2[\text{SO}(3)] + \alpha_3 \hat{C}_3[\text{SU}(3)], \quad (2)$$

where $\hat{C}_n[G]$ is the n^{th} order Casimir operator of the Lie algebra G and α_i are coefficients. This form exhausts all independent Casimir operators of SU(3) and SO(3), that is, any other commuting operator can be written

TABLE I: Normalized two- and three-boson SU(3) tensors.

n	(λ, μ)	$\tilde{\chi}$	ℓ	$\hat{B}_{[n](\lambda, \mu)\tilde{\chi}\ell m}^\dagger$
2	(4,0)	0	0	$\sqrt{\frac{5}{18}}(s^\dagger)^2 + \sqrt{\frac{2}{9}}(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_0^{(0)}$
2	(4,0)	0	2	$\sqrt{\frac{7}{9}}s^\dagger d_m^\dagger - \sqrt{\frac{1}{9}}(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_m^{(2)}$
2	(4,0)	0	4	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_m^{(4)}$
2	(0,2)	0	0	$P_0^\dagger \equiv -\sqrt{\frac{2}{9}}(s^\dagger)^2 + \sqrt{\frac{5}{18}}(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_0^{(0)}$
2	(0,2)	0	2	$P_{2m}^\dagger \equiv \sqrt{\frac{2}{9}}s^\dagger d_m^\dagger + \sqrt{\frac{7}{18}}(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_m^{(2)}$
3	(6,0)	0	0	$\sqrt{\frac{7}{162}}(s^\dagger)^3 + \sqrt{\frac{14}{45}}s^\dagger(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_0^{(0)} - \sqrt{\frac{8}{405}}((d^\dagger d^\dagger)^{(2)}d^\dagger)_0^{(0)}$
3	(6,0)	0	2	$\sqrt{\frac{7}{30}}(s^\dagger)^2 d_m^\dagger - \sqrt{\frac{2}{15}}s^\dagger(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_m^{(2)} + \sqrt{\frac{2}{21}}((d^\dagger d^\dagger)^{(0)}d^\dagger)_m^{(2)}$
3	(6,0)	0	4	$\sqrt{\frac{11}{30}}s^\dagger(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_m^{(4)} - \sqrt{\frac{14}{165}}((d^\dagger d^\dagger)^{(2)}d^\dagger)_m^{(4)}$
3	(6,0)	0	6	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{6}}((d^\dagger d^\dagger)^{(4)}d^\dagger)_m^{(6)}$
3	(2,2)	0	0	$W_0^\dagger \equiv -\sqrt{\frac{1}{9}}(s^\dagger)^3 + \sqrt{\frac{1}{20}}s^\dagger(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_0^{(0)} - \sqrt{\frac{7}{180}}((d^\dagger d^\dagger)^{(2)}d^\dagger)_0^{(0)}$
3	(2,2)	0	2	$V_{2m}^\dagger \equiv -\sqrt{\frac{14}{65}}(s^\dagger)^2 d_m^\dagger - \sqrt{\frac{1}{130}}s^\dagger(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_m^{(2)} + \sqrt{\frac{18}{91}}((d^\dagger d^\dagger)^{(0)}d^\dagger)_m^{(2)}$
3	(2,2)	2	2	$W_{2m}^\dagger \equiv \sqrt{\frac{2}{39}}(s^\dagger)^2 d_m^\dagger + \sqrt{\frac{14}{39}}s^\dagger(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_m^{(2)} + \sqrt{\frac{5}{78}}((d^\dagger d^\dagger)^{(0)}d^\dagger)_m^{(2)}$
3	(2,2)	2	3	$W_{3m}^\dagger \equiv \sqrt{\frac{7}{30}}((d^\dagger d^\dagger)^{(2)}d^\dagger)_m^{(3)}$
3	(2,2)	2	4	$W_{4m}^\dagger \equiv \sqrt{\frac{2}{15}}s^\dagger(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_m^{(4)} + \sqrt{\frac{7}{30}}((d^\dagger d^\dagger)^{(2)}d^\dagger)_m^{(4)}$
3	(0,0)	0	0	$\Lambda^\dagger \equiv -\sqrt{\frac{1}{81}}(s^\dagger)^3 + \sqrt{\frac{5}{36}}s^\dagger(d^\dagger d^\dagger)_0^{(0)} + \sqrt{\frac{35}{324}}((d^\dagger d^\dagger)^{(2)}d^\dagger)_0^{(0)}$

as a function of those appearing in Eq. (2). No Casimir operator associated with SO(2) appears since SO(3) is the symmetry or degeneracy algebra which expresses the rotational invariance of the Hamiltonian. \hat{H}_{DS} is completely solvable with eigenenergies

$$E_{DS} = \alpha_1 f_2(\lambda, \mu) + \alpha_2 L(L+1) + \alpha_3 f_3(\lambda, \mu), \quad (3)$$

where $f_2(\lambda, \mu) = \lambda^2 + (\lambda + \mu)(\mu + 3)$ and $f_3(\lambda, \mu) = (\lambda - \mu)(2\lambda + \mu + 3)(\lambda + 2\mu + 3)$. The spectrum resembles that of a quadrupole axially-deformed rotor with eigenstates arranged in SU(3) multiplets and K corresponds geometrically to the projection of the angular momentum on the symmetry axis. The Hamiltonian \hat{H}_{DS} is genuinely many-body (with interactions that are up to third order in the bosons). Its applicability is limited, however, since only three independent operators exist, and states in different K -bands with the same $(\lambda, \mu)L$ are degenerate. Flexibility can be considerably increased by introducing interactions with PDS. The method to construct such interactions is based on an expansion of the Hamiltonian in terms of tensors which annihilate prescribed set of states [16, 17]. In the present study, the tensors involve n -boson creation and annihilation operators with definite character under the SU(3) chain (1),

$$\hat{B}_{[n](\lambda, \mu)\tilde{\chi}\ell m}^\dagger, \quad \tilde{B}_{[n^5](\mu, \lambda)\tilde{\chi}\ell m} \equiv (-)^m (\hat{B}_{[n](\lambda, \mu)\tilde{\chi}\ell, -m}^\dagger)^\dagger. \quad (4)$$

The SU(3) tensor operators for $n=2$ and 3 are given in Table I. Of particular interest are the operators with $(\lambda, \mu) \neq (2n, 0)$ because the corresponding annihilation operators yield zero when acting on the ground-band members $[[N](2N, 0)K = 0, LM]$ (and possibly other states). Interactions involving these operators can be

TABLE II: Number of interactions in the IBM.

Order	Number of interactions ^a		
	General	SU(3) DS	SU(3) PDS
1	2 \mapsto 1	1 \mapsto 0	1 \mapsto 0
2	7 \mapsto 5	3 \mapsto 2	4 \mapsto 3
3	17 \mapsto 10	4 \mapsto 1	10 \mapsto 6
1 + 2 + 3	26 \mapsto 16	8 \mapsto 3	15 \mapsto 9

^aOn the left of \mapsto is the number of interactions of a given order; this reduces to the number on the right of \mapsto if one is only interested in excitation energies in a single nucleus.

added to the Hamiltonian (2) without destroying solvability of part of its spectrum. Two such operators, P_0^\dagger and P_{2m}^\dagger , exist for $n=2$, and allow the construction of an IBM Hamiltonian with up to two-boson interactions that have a solvable ground band $[[N](2N, 0)K = 0, LM]$ and a solvable γ band $[[N](2N - 4, 2)K = 2, LM]$. A two-body Hamiltonian with SU(3) PDS can be applied to ^{168}Er and the excellent SU(3) description of the energies and E2 properties of these bands can be retained while lifting the degeneracy of the β and γ bands [11].

The most general (2+3)-body Hamiltonian with SU(3) PDS can be written in terms of the operators given in Table I,

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H}_{PDS} = & h_2 P_2^\dagger \cdot \tilde{P}_2 + h_0 P_0^\dagger P_0 + g_4 W_4^\dagger \cdot \tilde{W}_4 + g_3 W_3^\dagger \cdot \tilde{W}_3 \\ & + g_2^a V_2^\dagger \cdot \tilde{V}_2 + g_2^b W_2^\dagger \cdot \tilde{W}_2 + g_2^c (V_2^\dagger \cdot \tilde{W}_2 + W_2^\dagger \cdot \tilde{V}_2) \\ & + g_0^a \Lambda^\dagger \Lambda + g_0^b W_0^\dagger W_0 + g_0^c (\Lambda^\dagger W_0 + W_0^\dagger \Lambda), \quad (5) \end{aligned}$$

with 2 + 8 interactions strengths h_i and g_i^x . Terms involving the operator $\hat{C}_2[\text{SO}(3)] \equiv \hat{L}^2$ can be added to this Hamiltonian, as is done in Eq. (2). To illustrate the

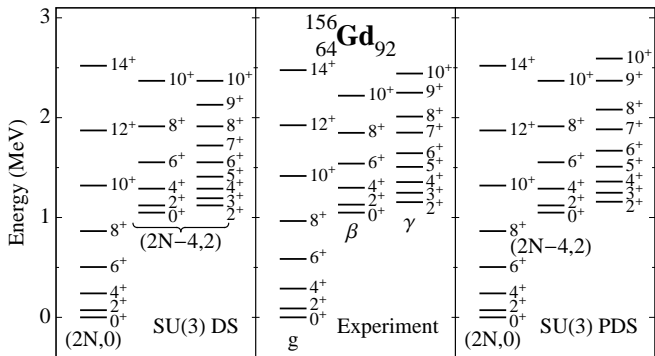


FIG. 1: Observed spectrum of ^{156}Gd [24] compared with the calculated spectra of \hat{H}_{DS} (2) with SU(3) DS and of \hat{H}'_{PDS} (6) with SU(3) PDS for $N = 12$ and parameters given in the text. Bands are labeled with the SU(3) quantum numbers (λ, μ) .

increase in flexibility of a Hamiltonian with SU(3) PDS, we list in Table II the number of interactions under the different scenarios. Up to third order, a general rotationally invariant Hamiltonian has 26 independent interactions, decreasing to 16 if one is only interested in excitation energies in a single nucleus. (This excludes terms involving \hat{N}). A Hamiltonian with SU(3) DS has, up to third order, 8 independent terms but 5 of them (\hat{N} , \hat{N}^2 , \hat{N}^3 , $\hat{N}\hat{L}^2$, and $\hat{N}\hat{C}_2[\text{SU}(3)]$) are constant in a single nucleus or can be absorbed in an interaction of lower order, leaving only the 3 genuinely independent terms shown in Eq. (2). The corresponding numbers for a Hamiltonian with SU(3) PDS are 15 and 9. The latter number agrees with the 10 terms in the Hamiltonian (5) which lacks \hat{L}^2 but includes the combinations $\hat{N}P_2^\dagger \cdot \tilde{P}_2$ and $\hat{N}P_0^\dagger P_0$. We conclude from Table II that more than half of all possible interactions in the IBM have in fact an SU(3) PDS.

Several SU(3)-preserving interactions are contained in Eq. (5). Specifically, $\hat{\theta}_2 \equiv 2\hat{N}(2\hat{N}+3) - \hat{C}_2$ corresponds to $h_0 = h_2 = 18$; $(\hat{N}-2)\hat{\theta}_2$: $g_0^a = 54$, $g_0^b = g_2^b = g_2^a = g_3 = g_4 = 30$; $\hat{C}_3 + (2\hat{N}+3)[3\hat{\theta}_2 - 2\hat{N}(4\hat{N}+3)]$: $g_0^a = 648$ and $\hat{\Omega} - (4\hat{N}+3)\hat{L}^2$: $h_2 = -108$, $g_0^a = 9g_0^b = -3g_0^c = 270$, $g_2^a/5 = g_2^b/21 = g_2^c/\sqrt{105} = 24/13$, $g_4 = -120$. The three terms involving $\hat{C}_n[\text{SU}(3)]$ are included in \hat{H}_{DS} (2). The term $\hat{\Omega} = -4\sqrt{3}\hat{Q} \cdot (\hat{L} \times \hat{L})^{(2)}$ is composed of SU(3) generators, hence is diagonal in (λ, μ) , but breaks the K -degeneracy. Its impact on nuclear spectroscopy has been previously studied in the IBM and symplectic shell model [21, 22].

In general, \hat{H}'_{PDS} (5) does not preserve SU(3) yet, by construction, for *any* choice of parameters the ground-band members $[[N](2N, 0)K = 0, LM]$ are solvable. For specific choices, additional solvable states are obtained. In particular, by choosing only the h_0 , g_0^a , g_0^b , g_0^c terms and \hat{H}_{DS} (2), the states $[[N](2N-4, 2k)K = 2k, LM]$, $k=1, 2, \dots$ (among which the γ -band members with $k=1$) remain solvable with energies E_{DS} (3). This case therefore has the same solvable states as the two-body Hamil-

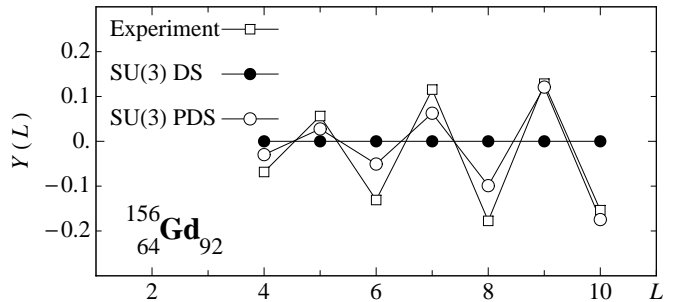


FIG. 2: Observed and calculated (SU(3) DS and PDS) odd-even staggering of the γ band in ^{156}Gd .

tonian with SU(3) PDS considered in Ref. [11]; the additional three-body terms lead to a different mixing of the non-solvable states.

Another class of Hamiltonians with SU(3) PDS exists which has solvable β -band members $[[N](2N-4, 2)K = 0, LM]$ with energies E_{DS} (3). This follows from the structure of the relevant Hamiltonian,

$$\hat{H}'_{\text{PDS}} = \hat{H}_{\text{DS}} + \eta_2 W_2^\dagger \cdot \tilde{W}_2 + \eta_3 W_3^\dagger \cdot \tilde{W}_3, \quad (6)$$

and the fact that W_{2m} and W_{3m} annihilate the intrinsic state of the β band, $|\beta\rangle \propto (\sqrt{2}P_0^\dagger - P_{20}^\dagger)(s^\dagger + \sqrt{2}d_0^\dagger)^{N-2}|0\rangle$. The property of solvability of the ground and β bands can be exploited in the following way. The Hamiltonian \hat{H}_{DS} (2) has a rotor spectrum with characteristic $L(L+1)$ splitting for all bands. Deviations from this pattern are often observed for the γ band of deformed nuclei and are indicative of γ -soft or triaxial behavior [23]. We illustrate the procedure with an application to ^{156}Gd . The parameters $\alpha_1 = -7.6$ keV, $\alpha_2 = 12.0$ keV, and $\alpha_3 = 0$ in \hat{H}_{DS} are fixed from the excitation energy of the β -band head and the moments of inertia of the ground and β bands. This completely determines the SU(3) DS spectrum, shown on the left of Fig. 1, which is characterized by degenerate β and γ bands. In the observed spectrum these bands are not degenerate and, more importantly, the γ -band energies display an odd-even staggering. This effect can be visualized by plotting the quantity [25]

$$Y(L) = \frac{2L-1}{L} \times \frac{E(L) - E(L-1)}{E(L) - E(L-2)} - 1, \quad (7)$$

where $E(L)$ is the excitation energy of a γ -band level with angular momentum L . For a rotor this quantity is flat, $Y(L) = 0$, as illustrated in Fig. 2 with the SU(3) DS calculation. The data, however, show considerable odd-even staggering which can be well described by a combination of three-body interactions with $\eta_2 = -18.1$ keV and $\eta_3 = 46.2$ keV. The calculated staggering increases with L which agrees with the experiment up to $L = 10$. For $L > 10$ the observed staggering changes character, a phenomena requiring higher angular momentum pairs,

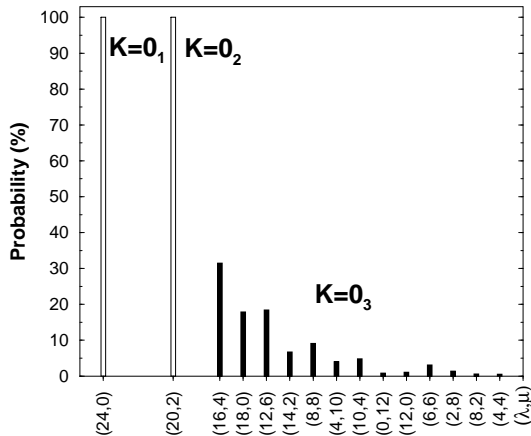


FIG. 3: SU(3) decomposition of wave functions of $L=0$ states in the $K=0_1, 0_2, 0_3$ bands for the PDS calculation.

which are beyond the scope of the standard (s, d) IBM description. The two interactions $W_2^\dagger \cdot \tilde{W}_2$ and $W_3^\dagger \cdot \tilde{W}_3$ induce a mixing of the γ band with higher-lying excited bands. Other approaches advocating the coupling of the γ band to the β band [26] or to the ground band [27] fail to describe the odd-even staggering in ^{156}Gd . For the PDS calculation, the wave functions of the states in the γ band involve 15% SU(3) admixtures into the dominant $(2N-4, 2)$ component. Higher bands exhibit larger SU(3) mixing and their wave functions are spread over many SU(3) irreps, as shown for the $K=0_3$ band in Fig. 3. This complex SU(3) decomposition is in marked contrast to the SU(3)-purity of the ground ($K=0_1$) and β ($K=0_2$) bands. Such strong symmetry-breaking cannot be treated in perturbation theory.

Previous studies of triaxiality in the IBM framework have employed only the cubic η_3 term of Eq. (6) [28, 29]. The current work hints that both η_2 and η_3 terms are necessary for an accurate description of odd-even staggering in deformed nuclei. This highlights the capacity of the PDS approach to identify novel relevant terms of a given order. We emphasize that the PDS results for the γ band are obtained without altering the good agreement for the ground and β bands, already achieved with the SU(3) DS calculation. This is further illustrated with the E2 transitions in ^{156}Gd . The observed $B(E2)$ values between ground, β , and γ bands are shown in Table III and compared to the results of the SU(3) DS and PDS calculations. The effective boson charge $e_b = 0.166 eb$ in the electric quadrupole operator $e_b[s^\dagger \tilde{d} + d^\dagger s + \chi(d^\dagger \tilde{d})^{(2)}]$ and the value $\chi = -0.168$ are fitted to the $B(E2; 2_1^+ \rightarrow 0_1^+)$ and $B(E2; 2_\beta^+ \rightarrow 4_1^+)$ values. The E2 transitions between ground and β bands can be calculated analytically [30], and remain valid in SU(3) PDS. Transitions involving γ -band members are different in SU(3) DS and PDS, and are computed numerically for the latter. It is seen from Table III that the mixing of the γ band with higher-lying excited bands improves the agreement with the data in

TABLE III: Observed and calculated $B(E2)$ values in ^{156}Gd . The parameters of the E2 operator are given in the text.

Transition	$B(E2; J_i^\pi \rightarrow J_f^\pi) (e^2 b^2)$		
	Expt [24]	SU(3) DS	SU(3) PDS
$2_1^+ \rightarrow 0_1^+$	0.933 25	0.933	0.933
$4_1^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+$	1.312 25	1.313	1.313
$6_1^+ \rightarrow 4_1^+$	1.472 40	1.405	1.405
$8_1^+ \rightarrow 6_1^+$	1.596 85	1.409	1.409
$10_1^+ \rightarrow 8_1^+$	1.566 70	1.364	1.364
$2_\beta^+ \rightarrow 0_\beta^+$	0.26 11	0.679	0.679
$4_\beta^+ \rightarrow 2_\beta^+$	1.40 75	0.951	0.951
$0_\beta^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+$	0.04 2	0.034	0.034
$2_\beta^+ \rightarrow 0_1^+$	0.0031 3	0.0055	0.0055
$2_\beta^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+$	0.0165 15	0.0084	0.0084
$2_\beta^+ \rightarrow 4_1^+$	0.0204 20	0.020	0.020
$4_\beta^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+$	0.0065 35	0.0067	0.0067
$4_\beta^+ \rightarrow 4_1^+$	—	0.0067	0.0067
$4_\beta^+ \rightarrow 6_1^+$	0.0105 55	0.021	0.021
$2_\gamma^+ \rightarrow 0_1^+$	0.0233 8	0.035	0.030
$2_\gamma^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+$	0.0361 12	0.056	0.048
$2_\gamma^+ \rightarrow 4_1^+$	0.0038 2	0.0037	0.0031
$3_\gamma^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+$	0.0364 70	0.062	0.053
$3_\gamma^+ \rightarrow 4_1^+$	0.0254 50	0.032	0.028
$4_\gamma^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+$	0.0090 25	0.017	0.015
$4_\gamma^+ \rightarrow 4_1^+$	0.050 15	0.067	0.057
$4_\gamma^+ \rightarrow 6_1^+$	—	0.0089	0.0076
$4_\gamma^+ \rightarrow 2_\beta^+$	0.0214 80	0.0033	0.0096

most cases.

In summary, we have identified several classes of $(2+3)$ -body IBM Hamiltonians with SU(3) PDS, and obtained an improved description of signature splitting in the γ band of ^{156}Gd . The analysis serves to highlight the merits in using the notion of PDS as a tool for selecting higher-order terms in systems where a prescribed symmetry is not obeyed uniformly. On one hand, the PDS approach allows more flexibility by relaxing the constraints of an exact DS. On the other hand, the PDS picks particular symmetry-breaking terms which do not destroy results previously obtained with a DS for a segment of the spectrum. The PDS construction is implemented order by order, yet the scheme is non-perturbative in the sense that the non-solvable states experience strong symmetry-breaking. The present work motivates and sets the stage for further exploring the impact of PDS with higher-order terms on the dynamics in quantum many-body systems.

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